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PARENTS AND THE PRESCHOOL CHILD

One of the most significant features of present-day American psychology is the rapid progress being made in the study of the preschool child. Not only has the number of studies appearing in this field doubled and redoubled in the last few years but the quality of the work being done has also rapidly improved.

This recent development is due principally to the work of experimental nursery schools. Many of these are proving remarkably fertile in the publication of excellent scientific studies of the young child. Outstanding work in this line is being done, for example, at the Universities of Iowa, Minnesota, Columbia, Yale, Cincinnati, Ohio, at the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit, and the Washington Child Research Center in Washington, D. C. More and more students are choosing the study of the preschool child as their life work, and among these students are many of remarkable promise.

Much of the information resulting from this scientific activity can be of value to the parent who has young children in the home. Unfortunately, many of these studies are published in periodicals and monographs which are not readily accessible to the average parent. The present article will therefore attempt to review some of the more recent literature which bears, directly or indirectly, on the home training of the preschool child.

The present article will discuss only publications appearing since January 1, 1928. Those who wish to consult the older literature will find it adequately reviewed by Baldwin (7) who published a summary of articles appearing between January 1, 1923, and March 31, 1928. An excellent scientific review and discussion of the field is also to be found in the report of the Toronto Conference on Child Development (52, 53) which met in May, 1929.

Of primary interest to the parent are the large number of general works on child training and child psychology which have been written for popular consumption during the period we are reviewing. A fair-sized literature has grown up in response to the demands of child-study clubs and parent-education groups. Unfortunately, this literature is rather uneven in quality. Not all writers who have ventured into this field have been thoroughly informed concerning the most recent scientific literature. Most of it also will be unsatisfactory to the Catholic parent on account of the attitude of the writers toward such moral issues as birth control and sex offenses. It is unfortunate that, with the exception of a slim volume by the present writer (31), there has been no attempt to interpret the newer knowledge of childhood in the light of Catholic faith and tradition.

Among the books most satisfactory from a scientific standpoint are the volumes by Rand, Sweeney, and Vincent (58), Curti (23), and the revision of Faegre and Anderson's book (51). Of the three, the educated mother will probably find the first best suited to her purposes. It represents the combined effort of a specialist in parent education, a nutritionist, and a psychologist, all of whom are members of the staff of the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit. The authors are therefore thoroughly well prepared for their task. After discussing the background of family life, these writers treat of the influence of heredity and the physiology of individual development. The remainder of the book is devoted to a very practical study of the physical and mental life of the growing child. The tone of the book is thoroughly practical throughout, and the mother will find in it authoritative answers to all sorts of questions which will arise in the care of her child. It is unfortunate that the philosophy of the family expounded by these writers differs markedly from the Catholic view. Aside from this one grave defect, however, the book can be unhesitatingly recommended.

The volume by Curti is written from the standpoint of the scientist rather than that of the mother. The professional psychologist, therefore, and those who wish to gain an insight into the mental life of the child will find it more satisfactory than the volume mentioned above. It will be useful indeed to any mother, but it is perhaps somewhat less concrete and practical

than the volume by Rand, Sweeney, and Vincent. Faegre and Anderson's book is a second edition of an older study. It is written, however, by thoroughly competent persons and would be a useful addition in any library.

Next in order of merit comes a group of publications emanating from authoritative sources but attempting a less complete and more popular presentation. These books will be preferred by those who desire a more readable and less detailed treatment of the young child. To this class belong the Children's Bureau pamphlet (66) on home management and Arlitt's two volumes (5, 6). To this category must be added two volumes which stress the mental hygiene of childhood. Mateer (50) treats the conduct problems of the young child in a rather informal manner, building her lessons around case studies followed by questions and answers. Crawford and Menninger (22) have a symposium on the mental health of the child which includes contributions from a number of authorities of recognized distinction.

There remains a series of books which rely on theoretical considerations or on general experience rather than on the latest scientific research. In this class belong the books by Gilbreth (34), Mr. and Mrs. Groves (40), Cooper (21), Swift (64), and Drever and Drummond (25). Among the writers of these books are some competent psychologists. Much of what they write will be useful to parents, but their works contrast unfavorably with books like those by Curti, or Rand, Sweeney, and Vincent.

Watson's volume (70) stands in a class by itself. It is written by a brilliant psychologist but by one who, unfortunately, has allowed himself to be influenced too much by the postulates of the behavioristic school of which he is the founder. His work contains many acute observations, but it cannot be recommended to the general reader. Sherman and Sherman (62) have written a book on human behavior which emphasizes infancy and the preschool period. It is somewhat behavioristic but very well written.

Turning now to the more specialized works, we come to a group of studies concerned with the psychology of early infancy. On account of the obvious difficulty of securing the use of subjects, the young infant has not been as thoroughly studied as the child between two or three and the school age. There is a great deal of room for further work in the psychology of infancy.

The development of intelligence in the young child has received more emphasis than any other aspect of infancy psychology. The last three years have seen the publication of a number of studies on this topic. Gesell (32) is the author of a volume giving further details about his previously published scale. The work of Gesell in this field is outstanding. It is unfortunate he has not published satisfactory norms for his scale but has left the evaluation of the test largely to the judgment of the examiner.

Hetzer and Wolf (42) have published in German a series of tests somewhat similar to the Gesell scale. Linfert and Hierholzer (48) have developed another scale, fully standardized, with accompanying norms. The Linfert-Hierholzer scale has the advantage of giving definite results without depending to any large extent on the judgment of the examiner. To the average parent it may be somewhat surprising to learn that the intelligence of children can be tested with something like accuracy during the first year of life. While the issue is not definitely settled, there is good reason to believe, however, that this is the case. The practical importance of this is quite clearly evident.

A number of studies continue to appear on special aspects of the mental and moral development of the child. Thus Bryan (13) has studied the sensory equipment of the newborn and Aldrich (1) has devised a new test for hearing. Bühler and Spielmann (16) report on the development of motor control and Foulke and Stinchfield (28) have studied speech. A large number of studies continue to be published on the special reflexes. There is, for example, an extensive literature on the Babinski reflex, a reaction of the toes which is elicited by stroking the sole of the infant's foot. Such special studies, however, are not of much practical importance to those charged with the care of the young, and they are omitted from the present review.

We have previously stated that it is possible to measure, at least roughly, the intelligence of young infants. What is the earliest point at which the child shows the degree of intelligence which will later characterize him? Is it possible to suspect the presence of a future Newton or Pasteur from the reactions of a newborn baby? In other words, may newborn babies be classified as bright or dull? A study by the present writer and two of his students (29) seems to answer this question in the

negative. According to this study it is not possible to distinguish a bright child from a dull one in the first few days of life, but it probably is possible to make some such distinction as early as one month.

A study by the present writer (30) seems to show that there is little or no relationship between the intelligence of the infant and socio-economic status of his parents. That is to say, a child from a poor family is as likely to be very intelligent as is a child from a wealthy family. This report is interesting because Goodenough (39) and Goodenough and Shapiro (38) have shown that in older children of preschool age there is some relationship between the social status of the parents and the intelligence of the child. If all these results can be taken at their face value, they would be a strong argument against the hereditary nature of intelligence; and the known superiority of children from the higher classes would seem to be something acquired after the first year of life.

Bonham and Sargent (11) have shown that something similar is true in the field of character traits. A careful statistical study by them seems to show that there is little relationship between the behavior traits of newborn children and the traits of the same children two years or two years and a half later. An ill-tempered baby is not more likely to develop into an ill-tempered child of three years than is a good-natured baby. Bühler and her co-workers (14, 15) have published two studies on the affective life of the child.

There is need of a good test for measuring the mental capacity of preschool children between, say, two and five years. Such a test is now in preparation by Doctor Goodenough of the University of Minnesota. Meanwhile the Kuhlmann test and the Merrill-Palmer tests are the most satisfactory available. The former test is discussed in two references (37, 47). Certain construction tests are discussed by Hallowell (41). Goodenough and Bryan (38) and Hicks (43) have published interesting papers on the related subject of the acquisition of skills.

Alpert (2) attempted to apply to the study of the intelligence of the young child, the methods which Köhler had used in studying the intelligence of apes. This investigation is very much open to criticism because of the presence of language ability in

the young child which makes the two situations hardly comparable.

An interesting field for investigation is offered by the study of family relationships. The young child does not grow up as an isolated organism but as a member of a family group. His conduct and his whole personality will be largely influenced by the actions of those around him. Many people feel that the only child is handicapped by the absence of brothers and sisters. Scientific studies on this point, however, are rather conflicting. Fenton (26) could find no significant differences when she studied teachers' ratings of only children and other children. Ward (68) reports that the problems presented by only children who had been brought to a guidance clinic were very similar to the problems presented by other children, but that the only children were less likely to steal, lie, and play truant. Blonsky (10), on the other hand, draws a rather unfavorable picture of the only child as a result of a study in a large school in Moscow. Sewall (61) has studied sibling rivalry. She concludes that, where jealousy exists between children in the same family, by far the most frequent cause of it seems to be a lack of consistency in discipline. Smalley (63) finds that rivalry is more likely to exist between two girls than between a girl and a boy or between two boys.

The conduct problems of young children offer a promising subject for further study. A basis for such a study will be furnished by case studies of the habits of normal children. Andrus (4) has contributed to this field a revision of her inventory of the habits of children from two to five, and Berne (9) has made an intensive analysis of more than five hundred hours of observation of the behavior of seven hundred children. Rugg, Krueger, and Sondergaard (60) studied the conversation of a group of children just emerging from the preschool period and found that self-assertion was the overwhelmingly favorite topic of conversation.

A number of studies have been concerned with "negativism." It appears that during a certain part of the preschool period the child will systematically refuse to obey commands or will even make a point of doing precisely the opposite of what he is told. Reynolds (59) has studied children's lies, and Olson (55) has published a most illuminating scientific investigation of nervous

habits. O'Grady (54) studied the "spoken phantasy" of children who talked to themselves at play or in bed. She used a dictaphone for the purpose.

The moral training of young children in this period is of supreme importance to Catholics. It is most unfortunate, therefore, that it has not received more attention. While theoretical works and works giving general advice in this field exist, very little of scientific merit has been published. The religious instruction and the moral training of children in grammar school have received a great deal of attention recently and it is unfortunate that this interest has not been extended to the younger child. Kirsch's (46) treatment of chastity includes important observations on the preschool period. Among the non-Catholic sources Tilson (65) and Bott, Blatz, Chant, and Bott (12) must be mentioned. In the general references mentioned at the beginning of this paper will be found many general observations which will be helpful in this field.

A number of studies on special topics of interest to parents must be mentioned. A great deal has been published, for example, on the question of feeding. In a number of places the dietary requirements of preschool children are being studied by scientific method. These lie outside of the scope of the present article, but it is worth while to mention the fact that Barnes (8) has summarized these in a convenient book.

Two studies by Macaulay (49) and Wagoner and Armstrong (67) respectively deal with the dressing problem. Jones and Jones (44) review one hundred and forty-two references on the development of the emotions. The same two writers (45) studied fear by handing a large, harmless snake to children of various ages. The younger children were less afraid of it than the older ones, a fact which seems to indicate once more that fear is "taught" to children by the attitudes of their elders.

As was mentioned at the beginning of this article, the nursery school or school for children of less than kindergarten age has developed rapidly in recent years. At present there is no reason to believe that such institutions will ever become universal. The nursery schools now existing are performing their most useful service by studying and reporting on the behavior of young children. They are to be regarded, therefore, as research institu-

tions rather than as educational or social agencies. Davis (24) lists one hundred and fifty-seven of such institutions existing in the United States during the scholastic year 1929-1930. Walsh (69) adduces evidence that the nursery school experience is beneficial to the child in his social relationships, and Foster and Mattson (27) give a manual of nursery-school procedure containing hints on child training which any parent will find of value.

It is very encouraging to observe the amount of research which is being done on the preschool child and the amount of literature which is being published concerning him. Although specialists in the psychology of young children would be the first to admit the inadequacy of existing studies, enough has been learned to be of real value to parents in their everyday problems. We can look forward to a day in which further research will furnish scientific data of even greater practical value. The physical, mental, and moral care of the child from birth to maturity is an extremely complicated task. Love and devotion are necessary, but they are not sufficient. Intelligent understanding of the child's nature and needs is also called for; and the modern child-study movement is contributing to such understanding data of the first importance.

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PAUL HANLY FURFEY.

ARE WE FAILURES AS TEACHERS OF RELIGION?

Results from the examinations prescribed for high schools affiliated with the Catholic University of America prove that, from the viewpoint of imparting information, our religion classes are successful. Statistics from the comparative reports issued by the Catholic University each scholastic year for the past five years reveal the interesting fact that the average attained by all the affiliated schools in religion courses from 1924 to 1929 is 81 per cent. The percentage is not a brilliant triumph, even from the informational aspect of religious instruction, but it is a proof that we are fairly competent in imparting the knowledge prescribed in religion. In interpreting these results it must be remembered that the examinations set by the Catholic University test merely knowledge, and, since this University is the only Catholic affiliating agency prescribing examinations as indications of the teacher's efficiency in religious instruction, these results may be taken as indicative of the general status of religious teaching in our Catholic high schools. We can dismiss, then, from the limitations of this paper, the statement that we are failures in imparting information. We can dismiss, likewise, any consideration concerned with the failure of our religious teachers in terms of effort, loftiness of purpose and zeal. The sacrifices of the members of our teaching communities voice an eloquent refutation of any such consideration. The charge brought against us—namely, that we are failures as teachers of religion—must have a deeper significance, then, than is first apparent.

Education, it is agreed, must concern itself with the whole man. But man is a composite of will and emotions, as well as of intellect. The activity of each faculty of the human soul interpenetrates the activity of the other two faculties. Intellect cannot function alone successfully. A man of all head and no heart is an annoying, if not a dangerous member of society; and a man of all heart and no will is as certainly a menace to the peace and good order of the community in which he lives as the individual whose will is so developed to the detriment of his head and heart that he rushes headlong to destruction, carrying with him all who impede the activity of that will. Religious education, then,

cannot be a mere matter of imparting information. If that were all required of us as religious teachers, our task would be comparatively an easy one, and the possession of a reliable encyclopedia of religious information would be our sole requisite for success. The purpose of our religion classes and the reason for our existence as religious teachers is the formation of true Christian character. But a true Christian is an educated man in the complete meaning of that word. His mind most assuredly must be trained in the acceptance of the sacred truths of our holy religion, but his emotions, none the less, must be purified and chastened and his will must be induced to strive for and attain the best and highest morality. The truths of faith must be emphasized with rigorous thoroughness and exactitude, but the appeal to the emotions must be potent and subtle and the play upon the will forceful and effective. Christian character is a resultant composition of both informational, volitional and emotional elements—of enlightenment, attitudes, appreciations, ideals, and habits. These, of course, must be vitalized by divine grace and in the supernatural order are the result of grace; but the supernatural always implies the natural and necessitates natural virtue as the medium through which it functions. From these few thoughts we might be led to believe that our failure lies in the fact that our technique in the education of the will and the emotions is defective. It may be noted that the word "technique" is used, rather than method. It is chosen with conscious purpose. Technique, according to Webster, is the form or mode commonly used for method of execution in a fine art, and the teaching of religion is most assuredly a fine art. Method, according to the same authority, is an orderly arrangement or classification. The selection of a particular method, in the narrow sense of the term, is a matter for choice with the individual teacher. To one, the project method may appeal most strongly and be for that particular teacher the surest avenue to success; for another, a combination of both may accomplish desired results. But there are certain fundamental principles of teaching which must be retained, irrespective of any method chosen.

If we examine the lesson plans in religion we have written, or at least pondered—if they have not been actually transcribed on paper—we may find that our statement of objective not infrequently is formulated as follows: to teach Grace, to acquaint

pupils with a knowledge of Baptism, to show the necessity of Charity. It would be interesting to determine, if that were possible, on how many days within the past three months of school our aim has been stated as follows: to show pupils how to increase Grace, to induce a love for the virtue of Charity, to inspire pupils with an appreciation for the sacramental grace which they have received at Baptism. A brief period of thought on the contrast between the two sets of objectives will reveal the value of blending the two types. One defect of our religious instruction, then, may be suggested as a failure to determine objectives which aim to strengthen the will and the emotions as well as the intellect. The suggestion is offered not with a view to minimize the importance of mind-training, but rather to emphasize the need of unifying mind and heart and will-training. To produce right Christian conduct there are changes to be effected in the mind and in the heart and in the will through the ideational, the emotional, and the volitional. These may be distinguished and in a degree separated, at least in our thinking about them, but in reality they are unified, for the soul is an entity.

The syllabus for the fourth year religion prescribed for high schools affiliated with the Catholic University specifies as one topic of study, in a very terse phrase; the meaning of grace. Certainly there is little effort here to translate the item into the practical, and the dearth of teacher helps is quite apparent. Moreover, if we examine the compendium which contains a development of this prescribed course, we find under the topic "Grace" the following items treated: definitions of the word grace in its various meanings; a logical treatment of gifts; theological discussion of the efficient, meritorious, instrumental and final causes of grace; cold, bare, isolated texts from Scripture on grace; a treatise on the heresies attacking grace; another theological discussion of condign and congruous merit; and, at the end of a chapter of twenty pages on the subject of grace, *eight lines* stating the place occupied by sanctifying grace in the economy of religion. This illustration is merely typical of the treatment of other topics found in the same course and in the same compendium and likewise in many other texts used in our high schools. Yet the subject of grace is possibly the most important single item of information for the life of the student in the whole religion course. It is the aim of all the sacraments either to give

grace or increase it; the supernaturalized struggle of a whole lifetime to keep it, with the eternal destiny of the soul dependent upon its ultimate possession. Having given a clear understanding of the importance of grace coupled with an appreciation for its possession and practice in the use of the means of securing and increasing it and an attitude of mind bent on maintaining the soul in this friendship of God, we may launch a pupil on the sea of life and be reasonably confident that she will reach the port of heaven safely.

But will a mere teaching of the items of interest in the chapter on grace, with the ability to answer intelligently questions based on the text, provide a student with sufficient training in will and emotions for life? With the emphasis on the informational side, have we failed to make the applications practical? Have we, after clarifying her intellect on the subject of grace, inspired her will with a love of this gift which is a share in the divine life of God? Have we appealed to her emotions by presenting inspiring lessons on grace taught by Christ Himself? Have we presented, in the study of the unit of grace, the beautiful picture of Christ on the eve of His Passion as He tells His chosen ones: "I am the true vine; as the branch cannot bear fruit of itself, unless it abide in the vine, so neither can you, unless you abide in Me," and linked that picture with the one wherein on the same evening Christ gives the surest pledge of His desire for union with the soul, namely, the institution of the Holy Eucharist? And in the presentation of these appealing pictures have we fired the imagination of the youth entrusted to our care with a vivid realization of the ideal of Divine friendship which means literally and figuratively oneness with Christ through the possession of grace? In our treatment of that subject have we aimed to link the idea of grace with the reason for the sacraments, with the idea of virtue? Again, what opportunity have we offered the class for the formation of certain habits which have for their purpose the increase of grace, viz., the use of ejaculatory prayer, the use of the sacramentals, attendance at devotions not binding under pain of sin, etc.?

In our efforts to teach religion successfully from the viewpoint of the pupil's ability to pass an examination, it may be that we lose sight of the broader and ultimate ends of religious instruction. Certainly with the struggles that are incumbent on us indi-

vidually and collectively to meet the scholastic requirements of affiliating and accrediting agencies, we may be pardoned for the little time and energy at our disposal for the improvement of our methods of teaching religion. But, taking for granted that we have given time and attention to improving our technique in religion classes, we may have become so concerned with the petty details required in our syllabus that we have failed to get a broad, clear view of our ultimate aims in teaching religion. But for the successful teaching of any subject it is necessary that we be familiar with the objectives to be attained by the subject as a whole, as well as the objectives to be accomplished by the distinct stages of advance and development in the particular unit of that subject which we are appointed to teach. An accurate and comprehensive vision of the course as a whole will furnish a unified conception, which, like a spirit, will pervade the component parts and communicate its image to each of them. Short-sightedness with regard to the ultimate purpose of all religious teaching may be productive at times of disastrous results. We do not rightfully teach religion in order that our pupils may pass successfully an examination in it, or that our school may attain a creditable standing; but we teach religion that each individual may learn how to bring her life to a conformity with the teachings of Christ as learned from the voice of the Church, how to make her will one with the will of God, how to attain, in one word, union with Christ; and each unit in the course in religion, throughout the four years, must contribute a definite quota to this ultimate objective.

Psychologists have been careful to group the various subjects taught in the field of general education into definite types—the science type, the practical-arts type, the appreciation type, etc. We learn, for example, that mathematics is a skill subject and that the methods employed by the teacher must be such as to develop skill in the child in performing the fundamental operations, rather than an appreciation for a like ability in some mathematician. In other words, we teach mathematics by having pupils perform the various operations, not by admiring the teacher's ability to speedily arrive at a mathematical calculation with accuracy; not through learning by rote the definitions of addition and subtraction. Have we analyzed the purposes of religious instruction in such a way as to determine the efficient

methods to accomplish these purposes? Is not religion a matter of activity, of living? At the particular judgment will eternal happiness be proportioned in terms of brilliancy and profusion of intellectual concepts of religion or rather by the number of good deeds performed? Christ's own words give us the answer: "Come ye blessed of my Father; for when I was hungry you fed me, when I was naked you clothed me," and on through the litany of kindly deeds done for Christ in the person of one's neighbor. May our failure be traced to a tendency to passivity in our religion classes? Have we provided sufficient opportunity for correct habit formation? In every class have we availed ourselves of the opportunity to tactfully correct moral attitudes not in keeping with the ideals of a truly Christian character? Religion in the minds of many high school students seems to be associated solely with attendance at Mass on Sundays and the recitation of certain prayers. It does not seem to function in their minds as a matter of daily, hourly observance. Teachers may be deluded into regarding a pupil worthy of special commendation because she wears a medal of Our Blessed Lady or attends an occasional evening service in her parish church. And yet, careful observation of that same pupil may not infrequently reveal marked injustices committed to a fellow student or attitudes of unkindliness to those not appealing to her taste or of haughtiness to those less fortunate in life. Religion is most assuredly not merely a matter of Sunday observance. Examination of the Decalogue reveals but one commandment devoted to Sunday observance, but nine thundering forth commands that bind every conscious moment of life. May it not be that we lose sight of the importance of inculcating by practice the virtues that are the foundation stones of a truly Christian life? We may possibly spend much effort to impart knowledge of religious truth, but are our efforts calculated to induce love of virtue, appreciation for the beauty of a truly Catholic life, or to assist in the formation of habits of heart and will as well as of intellect? We teach the Mass, the Sacraments, the Commandments. Do we teach the Beatitudes beyond their mere recital? And yet, they are the key in Christ's own words to a blessed life here and hereafter. Moreover, in our teaching of the Mass and the Sacraments has there been a tendency to present their use as ends rather than as means? Our religious duty is not accomplished

with attendance at Mass. We hear Mass, we receive the sacraments that we may increase grace, that we may come to closer union with Christ through a worthy life.

Another defect of our religious teaching may be the isolation of courses into the divisions of dogma, morals, liturgy, apologetics. For the college or seminary student, such a logical arrangement may be praiseworthy; but for the high school student whose vision is restricted by the limitations consequent on her age and immaturity of reasoning faculties, such an arrangement is fraught with the danger of presenting religion as a piecemeal affair, most especially if the teacher is not constantly vigilant of opportunity to link morals and dogma and these in turn with liturgy and apologetics in such a way that the student may see the relation of each to the other and to religion as a unified whole. In His teachings, Christ, the greatest Teacher, fused the moral and dogmatic aspects of the ideas He sought to implant in the minds of His hearers. A consideration of but one parable proves the point: In the story of the Prodigal we find the doctrine of God's love for sinful man and the workings of divine grace blended most forcefully with the inculcation of the moral obligation of repentance and confession on the part of the one who has offended this all-loving Creator. Examples *ad libitum* might be cited from the same source.

Finally, it might be suggested that we lessen the value of our work as religious teachers through a failure to capitalize the potent charm and irresistible appeal of the life of Christ as the unifying concept of the various phases of religious instruction. We have said that the goal of all our efforts as religious educators is to make our pupils Christ-like in their ideas, in their appreciations, in their attitudes, in their habits, in their conduct. "Christianity is above all things else the worship of Christ our God become Man," according to the statement of Father Cuthbert, O.S.F.C., in "God and Supernatural," and Catholic teaching, whether dogmatic or moral, is nothing else than an elucidation of the mystery of Christ and of our relations with Him as the life-giving principle of the new and higher life wherein man is invested in perfect love with God. The Catholic belief in the personality of Christ is, as it were, the very soul of Catholicism, the primary premise of all its dogmatic teaching, and the first

principle from which the Christian moral law is derived."¹ In the matter of teaching religion effectively we rob, then, our best efforts of much of their fruit if we fail to capitalize the infinite possibilities of the life of Christ as the matter of potent interest and persuasive charm to the adolescent mind. No matter what course we are obliged to teach, no matter the handicaps that may confront us from the viewpoint of lack of specialized training in the teaching of religion, we have an abundant source of inspiration and enlightenment for our religion classes in the life of Christ pondered and admired in the hours of meditation prescribed in every religious rule. That life and that personality invest our own religious life with the beauty that savors of the heavenly. Why not grant to our pupils a vision of that Life and that Personality in all its sublimity in order that they may come to admire it and love it and fashion their own characters on the ideal which it presents?

There may be other weaknesses in the technique employed in our religion classes. In fact, an examination of the wealth of published material on this subject reveals a long litany of errors of judgment found in the work of teaching religion—wrong order of presentation, overemphasis on memory, neglect of sentiment, neglect of liturgy or the lives of the saints in the materials taught in religion class, and on endlessly. But the weaknesses suggested here seem fundamental. If their enumeration will lead but one teacher to a more effective technique in her teaching of religion, the time and effort expended upon their study has not been in vain.

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¹"God and the Supernatural." Edited by Father Cuthbert, O.S.F.C.
Published by Longmans, Green & Co.

SUPERVISION OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN A CATHOLIC GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL.

We are forced to admit that until very recent years Vocational Guidance in Catholic Schools meant little more than selecting and preparing boys and girls for religious life. The very word "vocation" was limited and circumscribed in its interpretation, and we spoke of a boy or a girl "having a vocation" only when we meant that they seemed to be called to lead a life in the direct and complete service of God. "Having a vocation" meant but one thing, and that thing an evident call to the religious life.

The term as used by educators today means the fitting of every child in the school to his or her proper niche in life. We no longer feel that mass education is the best preparation for future life. The old system of providing but one course of study to be taken by all children in the grade schools or merely dividing the high school into academic and commercial departments is no longer sufficient to prepare every pupil in the entire school for the solution of the problems he or she must face as they go out into the world alone. Scarcely any two of them shall fall into the identical spheres or be forced to face the same difficulties or overcome the same obstacles or earn their livelihood under the identical circumstances or be afforded the same opportunities for advancement or success. No two of them have the same kind of homes, the equal financial resources, equally identical backgrounds of heredity or environment; no two of them have the identical God-given talents of body or intellect; no two of them must face the same accidental crosses of death or accident in their family or home or to themselves—no two of them face the borderline of life alone with the same handicaps or the same advantages.

As if education is to fulfil its purpose, if it is to prepare the child adequately and competently to meet the problems of adolescent and adult life, if it is to prepare the child successfully to take its place in the order of things and life, it must afford each and every child sufficient guidance to enable him to choose and find his proper sphere and offer him sufficient preparation for that choice. Education then must be individualistic as well as general. Each child must be considered as an individual and separate problem to be studied and solved apart from every other

child, and she should be prepared and armed and equipped as if she alone were the only problem for education to solve.

We are forced to admit that we have been guilty of gross negligence with regard to the child of but one or two talents. We have spent millions upon millions of dollars in erecting and equipping institutions of higher education merely for the purpose of helping the boy and girl of ten talents to go out and gain ten talents more. It is money well spent, and no one may criticize it. But in doing all this we must not overlook the fact that the child of one talent is just as much our charge and responsibility as the child of ten.

Even in this age of increased secondary and higher education, the rate of mortality in our schools is alarming. Thorndike found that, out of every 100 pupils who finish the sixth grade, only 79 remain through the seventh, and only 59 through the eighth. And of every 100 entering high school, 32 drop out in the ninth grade and 25 in the tenth. Ayres in his study found similar facts. Koos on page 119 of his book on Junior High Schools tells us that the percentage of those who drop out after the first year is 32.4 per cent. Another study discloses that 40 per cent of all the pupils entering the grade schools do not attain the seventh grade, 50 per cent do not attain the eighth grade, 75 per cent do not go beyond the eighth grade, and 92 per cent do not reach the last year of high school. It is also food for thought to know that 90 per cent of the pupils finishing high school go no further.

Educational guidance can go a long way to lower these figures. The proper guidance of youth in the selection of study and correct habits of study can instill a love for further education and create an incentive for a continuation of school life. But it certainly cannot totally eliminate or wipe out this vast army of boys and girls who do not complete their school life. We have been permitting these children to drift out into the world to shift for themselves, giving practically no thought to the fact that they may be falling into spheres for which they have no preparation or which may be the occasion of their ruin. We have forgotten that every child has a vocation; that there is some place in life for which he is destined by an Eternal Creator and in which he can best save his immortal soul. Working in the shop, the factory, the department store, or the office may be just as

truly a vocation as wearing the garb of religious life. And it is the duty of education to help the child find that proper sphere in life for which he or she is intended, and then to prepare that child as completely as possible for that vocation once it has been determined. The boy or girl who must drop out of school must be considered as an inferior or a burden, and vocational guidance must not assume the attitude that its purpose is merely disposing of such a child in the easiest or least troublesome manner. It is not a question of expediency or merely efficiency—it is moral obligation of preparing and fitting the child for the place in life for which he was intended by his Maker. Only when it realizes and assumes this grave responsibility does vocational guidance fulfil the meaning of its name.

Neither educational nor vocational guidance can follow any set rules or systems. In fact they are not systems—they are movements and must remain movements if they are to fulfil their purpose. They must change with the change of time, locality and industry. No two places, no two generations, no two strata of society can use the same principles of guidance. They must be adapted to the individual needs of an individual child in an individual community under individual conditions of society, industry and morality. The fundamental principle of adapting the child to the needs and opportunities of the community in which he lives is universal and general, but the methods of that guidance and the media used for adjusting the child are as numerous and individual as the number of children themselves. No two children can be guided in the identical manner. Heredity, home environment, financial resources, mental ability, moral propensities, physical conditions—these and other circumstances make it impossible for any one system of vocational guidance to effectively do its work.

Vocational guidance is not vocational training. The former helps the child choose the field for which it is best fitted in life; the latter places them in either a school or trade in which he or she may study and prepare for the vocation which has already been decided upon through the medium of vocational guidance. Vocational training schools are steadily becoming more numerous. Nearly every city of any size has already erected at least one, and many cities have more than one. Some have them for only boys, other for both boys and girls. They are an integral part

of the public school program. They are almost a financial impossibility in the parochial school curriculum, for the cost per capita is found to be about three times the cost of the regular grade school. But there is practically no need for Catholic schools to set up their own vocational schools. By their very nature, these schools expose the child to no religious contamination and, with a little diligence on the part of the priests and sisters in following up the child who leaves the parish schools to enter the public vocational training school, the spiritual life of the child can easily be taken care of. Let us keep our children in our own schools as long as possible. If they must leave, let us guide them properly in the choice of vocations. Let us follow them and watch them and help them after they have left the sheltering protection of our schools. If we do this we shall have done a great deal—surely more than we have been doing.

The child must first of all be taught to study himself. "Know thyself" is just as important today as it was before Plato spoke. The child must learn to realize his own abilities, his own capabilities, his talents, his resources. The child needs direction in this; moreover, it must be objective, so that the child is not highly introspective. He must have explained to him the various fields of occupation and professions, not as he would like to see them but only in the light in which the occupation or profession may be of service in helping him choose his vocation. He must be given the opportunity to study these worlds of work as they are, see their opportunities and drawbacks, realize the necessary qualification for each and measure himself as he truly is in comparison with these requirements. He should have talks from the leaders in the various fields of work—leaders who will not sound mere platitudes but who will be intellectually honest with the child and who will realize that by his talk he may be determining the entire life of an individual.

Study of occupations must be specific; opportunities change so radically, dependent upon new inventions, concentration of industry and what not, so that information that is given the child must be up to date. Child alone cannot secure such facts. Hence they must be supplied under competent supervision so that the choice shall not be half heard, misguided, hit-or-miss selection but a definite decision after sufficient investigation.

Who shall do vocational guidance in our schools? Everyone

who claims to be interested in the child. It cannot be done by any one person or teacher; it must have the co-operation of the teachers, the parents and the child. It must call into service the leaders of professions and industry and occupations in the community. It must make use of the home, the church, the school, the locality. The child is guided, not forced, is helped not coerced. It is vocational *guidance*, not vocational *compulsion*. In the final analysis the child must choose his place in life; it must not be chosen for him.

On the shoulders of the one in charge of vocational guidance rests a heavy responsibility. In his hands lie the lives and sometimes the eternity of those under his charge. He must be kind, patient and sympathetic. He must be most tactful in his conferences with the pupil; he must be most careful in his preparation of lectures; he must exercise the greatest care in his choice of speakers. Above all he must merit and secure implicit confidence from the child and never lose it. He must never betray the confidence of the pupil, for once the boy or girl learns that the counselor cannot be trusted he has lost his usefulness as a counselor. The child should be made to realize that he has a real friend to whom he can go with all or any of his difficulties, a friend that understands and is able and willing to help. He should be an idol of the pupil and, we might add, without feet of clay. He must be individually interested in every child—must have no visible favorites. He must be willing to sacrifice time—plenty of it, without material return. If he cannot realize that his time, his energy, his talents—his whole life—is an investment in souls that shall pay dividends only in eternity, he should not undertake the responsibility of vocational guidance.

The following course to be outlined in a succeeding paper is an attempt to put into a concrete, definite form the foregoing principles of vocational guidance as applied and used in a Catholic girls' high school in an industrial city. The course as here outlined shall be inaugurated in Sacred Heart High School, Pittsburgh, this Fall. It is essentially an experiment. We make no predictions; we offer no apologies. It is not original. It is the amalgamation of everything that seemed practical and useful in vocational guidance courses in other school systems. All possible manuals, blanks, forms, pamphlets and literature of the systems of the Pittsburgh public schools, South Bend public

schools, New Orleans public schools, Chicago public schools, San Francisco public schools, the Department of Education of the State of Pennsylvania were used. Some sixteen bound volumes on occupations and vocations were studied, and the chapters most applicable to the needs of the pupils of this school are referred to.

The program calls for one class recitation each week in all four years of the high school. The course is divided into units of either three or four lectures and calls for a written paper or test at the end of each unit. Each year briefly reviews the work of all preceding years before taking up any new material. Only those occupations are studied each year that a girl leaving school at the end of that year might be able to enter. Thus a higher level of occupations and professions is investigated each year. The class work is supplemented each year by talks from women in these occupations and by visits by the pupils to the places of the occupations or industry. An outline of the matter to be covered by the speaker shall be given to each woman some time in advance, and she shall be asked to follow that outline. This is done in order to insure the pupils getting the information they should receive in order effectively to understand the occupation. When possible, a copy of the speaker's paper shall be obtained. When the children visit the places of occupation they shall be given an outline of what to look for during the visit, and a written report of the visit shall be handed in to the teacher.

A list of the materials and equipment necessary for the installation of the course is given, and each step taken by the supervisor or counselor is indicated so that he may systematically or orderly inaugurate the course.

METHOD OF PROCEDURE FOR VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Materials Used.—(1) Previous to the opening of the school the supervisor shall prepare a filing cabinet with an envelope for each pupil in which are to be kept all the records of each pupil during the four years. This cabinet is to be kept locked as most of the information and records are personal and confidential, and not meant for curious eyes.

2. The following record blanks are to be ready to be filled out as soon as possible after the opening of school. The date of insertion of each card is kept on the blank on the outside of the

envelope. He shall first obtain the cumulative record card from the principal as a study of the pupil's past work in school is most important in judging intellectual achievements of the girl during her previous years.

(b) As soon as they can be conveniently given, Intelligence Tests should be administered. The Otis Higher Examination, Form A should be given at this time, but if any of the pupils already have taken this test, then Form B of the same test can be given. The mental age and the Intelligence Quotient can be recorded, but it must be remembered that intelligence tests are merely guide posts and not final analyses or anathemas on any child.

(c) He shall have each teacher who has had the child in class make out the Teacher's Estimate Scale of every pupil and return it to him.

(d) At the next opportunity, preferably at the next class, he shall have each pupil fill out the self-analysis form, assuring them that the information is to be kept confidential and asking for an honest and candid report.

(e) Each pupil shall be given a Course of Study Outline which she shall fill out and bring to the supervisor when she comes for her first conference.

5. Besides these the supervisor shall have the counselor's record card upon which he shall make a record of every interview with the pupil and any results achieved by that interview. He shall also have ready the Home Visiting Record, which he shall make out after visiting the home of the girl.

Personal Interview.—After the supervisor has all the possible or available records and knowledge of the pupil obtained from the above sources, he shall start to interview each pupil personally commencing with the seniors. He takes the seniors first because they are the first to leave the school and need his immediate attention since they have had no personal guidance before. He must bear in mind that the purpose of this interview is primarily to get the confidence of the pupil. It should be very informal. The counselor must immediately set the child at ease, confining the first part of the interview to a single chat about vacation, where she was, how she liked it, with whom she took it and how long was it. Gradually he can turn the course of conversation to school, looking over her Course of Study Out-

line which she has brought with her and ascertaining whether or not she is taking the proper studies to fit her for the things she would like to do in life. He must try to find out how well she likes school, if she has any difficulty with any particular subject, and if she has any particular aim in life. A few general queries about her health, her extra-curriculum activities, would not be out of place.

It is most important that he do not have any of the records, blanks or tests in view during this interview. He should know who the next girl is that he is going to meet, look over her record before she comes in, but not while she is present. He already has her cumulative record, her self-analysis, her intelligence test, her teacher's personality rating, and she brings her Course of Study. This should be enough to guide the first interview without disconcerting the girl by having all these before him when she is present. She must not get the impression that "anything you say will be held against you." The counselor should make out his own counselor's report immediately—even before he interviews another pupil. In this manner there will be no danger of confusing his recollection of different pupils.

Teachers' Meetings.—We take it for granted that the counselor shall spend at least part of every day interviewing pupils. At the end of the first week he should call a meeting of all the teachers in the school. This meeting can be arranged to suit the convenience of all, since the teachers are all Sisters. Probably the best time would be Friday evening during their recreation period. At this meeting he will go over the case of each pupil individually and try to get any further information he can from the Sisters about the pupils he interviewed during the week. In the case of the older pupils they will probably be able to give him some valuable information, as they have already had the girl in class. In turn he may be able to give them some information that will help them in dealing with some particular girl in class. He should be careful, however, not to reveal any personal information that he thinks the girl would not want the teacher to know. The child's confidence in him must be preserved at any cost. It is a matter for absolute discretion, and no set rules can be given for it. The main purpose of the meeting is to get information, not to give it.

Parent-Teachers Association.—No vocational guidance can be

truly effective without the co-operation of the parents. Hence it is necessary to acquaint the parents with the purpose of the project and to impress upon them the necessity of their co-operation. To accomplish this the supervisor shall organize what we shall call, for want of a better name, a "Parent-Teachers Association." The title is really a misnomer, for the organization will perform none of the functions of the typical Parent-Teachers Societies. Such organizations in high schools are usually failures, for the ordinary high school student usually feels that she is too mature and too independent to have her parents around the school. And we must deal with the psychology of the high school mind as we find it, not as we would like to have it. The student first of all must be convinced that the organization is solely for the purpose of educating the parent as well as the pupil to the advantages of vocational guidance and of acquainting the parent with the various possibilities and opportunities in the vocational fields through the medium of the talks from leaders in those fields. They must be assured that this organization is not going to be a tattle-tale bureau. The procedure shall be to send a letter to every parent of every child in the school inviting them to a meeting in the school hall. This meeting may also be announced in church and all the members of the parish be invited. At the meeting the whole program of the vocational guidance shall be explained, with emphasis laid upon the fact that the prime aim is to help the parent and the child in finding her true location in life. The prime importance of the parents' attendance at the lectures is to be stressed, for this shall be the sole function of the organization. The parents are to be assured that there shall be no dues, no assessments, no officers, nothing but attendance and co-operation with the counselor.

Home Visits.—Starting with the pupils of the twelfth grade, the counselor will visit the homes of as many children in the school as possible. This visit is to be very informal but should be announced to insure the family's being at home. The counselor can obtain all the information he is seeking and be able to fill out the Home Visiting Card without betraying the fact that he came for a definite purpose. Under no circumstance is he to take the card with him or let the family know that he is going to keep a record of the information he is receiving.

Follow-up Work.—The supervisor shall meet with the faculty

once a week to discuss any problem they have met with any individual student. Poor work cards, tardy cards and absent reports should all be brought to this meeting. Lack of interest in the school, failure to study or to do home work, any suspicion the teacher may have of any personal problems the student may be encountering should be brought out at these meetings. The cases discussed should be individual, not general, so that the supervisor may again interview these pupils and try to get from them the causes and find out the remedies.

2. The counselor shall interview all pupils who have failed in any subject at the end of the quarter. This interview has for its purpose the finding out whether or not the pupil is taking the right course or the right electives in her course, or if she needs any special help with her study.

3. The supervisor shall interview any pupil wishing to change her course at the end of the semester. Any change agreed upon shall be done only with the consent of the parents and the principal of the school. The record of any such change should be inserted in the pupil's envelope.

4. The supervisor shall interview any pupil wishing to leave school. Such a move should be taken only with the written consent of the parents. If the pupil desires to go to work, the counselor should aid her in finding the most desirable position for her. For this purpose he can make use of the placement bureau of the Pittsburgh public schools. Assurance of co-operation has already been given by Dr. Ryneerson of the Vocational Guidance Bureau of the Pittsburgh high schools. As their department has been in existence for a number of years and is known and recognized by all Pittsburgh firms, it would be inadvisable to set up an independent bureau. However, when the counselor can personally place the pupil through the medium of his alumni association, he should do so. In either case a record of the parents' permission, the name of the firm employing the girl, and how long she remained should all be placed in her envelope.

Alumnae.—(1) Some time after the course is well under way, the counselor should organize an Alumnae Association of the high school. High school alumnae are not generally a success, especially in private institutions, but that is generally due to the method of organization or the activities of it after organization. This association should have but one purpose, and that to enlist

the graduates in helping the students in their vocational planning. Some informal talks given at meetings at which the principal event of the night would be bridge, or a radio dance would serve the purpose. The chief trend of these talks should be to encourage the pupils to remain in school as long as possible. Those who have made their mark in the world could help in placing students at work. Above all the policy should be: no dues, no assessments, no drives, no officers. Keeping the alumnae in touch with the school is sufficient.

CLASS ROOM WORK BY SEMESTERS

FRESHMAN YEAR

FIRST SEMESTER

LAYING THE FOUNDATION

I. Orientation to a New School.

1. What a high school means to a pupil—South Bend, "Which," page 8.
2. Explanation of Sacred Heart High School regulation and routine, Blue Book, page 46, for suggestions.
3. Explanation of program of studies—electives and required. Pa. Bulletin, No. 48, page 17.

II. Relation of School to Work.

4. Attitude of pupil to school work—"Which," page 10.
5. Right habits of study—Gallagher, Ch. 9; 7th grade course, page 15.
6. Right habits of study (continued)—same references.

III. Necessity of Having a Plan.

7. Knowledge of the world ahead. Proctor, Ch. 9; Holbrook, Ch. 1.
8. Knowledge of Self. Gallagher, Ch. 2; Proctor, Ch. 2.
9. Fitting the two together to make a choice. Proctor, Ch. 3.

IV. My Future Life and Education.

10. What is a vocation? Pa. 8th course, page 6.
11. General survey of occupations. Hoolbrook, Ch. 1; S.B.J.H.S., page 6.
12. Educational requirements for each. Weaver, intro. to each chapter.

V. Making a Plan.

13. Discussion of self-analysis blank.
14. Qualities for success. New Orleans Course of Study, pages 761-763.

FRESHMAN YEAR

SECOND SEMESTER

REQUIREMENTS FOR LIFE

VI. Leading Virtues.

1. Explanation of leading virtues in life. Gallagher, part 3, lesson 1.
2. Self-analysis in these virtues.

VII. Conduct for Girls.

3. The Catholic Woman.
4. Sacred Heart High School's preparation for Catholic womanhood.
5. How to be a real Catholic woman.

6. Secular branches as preparation for future Catholic womanhood. Gall. Less. Need for more time than 9th grade.
7. Opportunities beyond it. Less. 20.

VIII. Vocational Guidance.

8. Its need in high school. Gallagher, Less. 21; Proctor, Ch. 3; S. B. Bull.; Pgh. Bull.; Harrisburg Bull.
9. How to attack the study of vocations. Weaver, Ch. 3, 4, 5, Less 31.
10. Sources to our ideas. Less. 32, Survey of books.
11. Preparing for a vocation. Occupation for women.
12. Women who work. Hatcher, Ch. 1.
13. Fields for women (Explanation of fields in general.)
14. Some of the lower fields.

SOPHOMORE YEAR

FIRST SEMESTER

I. My Preparation for the Future.

1. What is a vocation? Pa. Course 8, page 6.
General Survey of occupations. So. Bend H. S., page 12.
2. Educational requirements for college entrance.
3. Is my present schedule fitting me for the vocation I think I need?
4. Examination of the self-analysis blank. New Orleans, page 761.
5. Correcting wrong habits of study. Gall., Ch. 9.

II. Requirements for Life.

6. Explanation of leading virtues and self-analysis in each. Pt. 3, Less. 1.
7. Conduct for Catholic girls. The making of a Catholic woman.
8. Sacred Heart High as a preparation for life. High school subjects, their importance. Less. 11 and 20.

III. Vocational Guidance.

9. Its need in the high school. Sources of Information, Less. 21, 30, 32.
10. Women in work. Fields for women. Division of vocations for women—Hatcher.
11. Home, the final true vocation for women outside of religion. Shields, Phil. of Education.

IV. Classes of Vocations for Men and Women.

12. The unskilled worker, requirements and compensations.
13. The skilled worker, requirements and compensations.
14. The professional worker, requirements and compensations. So. Bend, page 16; Proctor, Ch. 4; Holbrook, Ch. 4 and 5; Davis, Ch. 5; Gallagher, pages 209-213.

SOPHOMORE YEAR

SECOND SEMESTER

V. Women and Work.

1. The nobility of work. Weaver, Ch. 3; Pope's Ency. Gall., page 141.
2. Making the choice. Weaver, Ch. 3 and 4.
3. A life or a living. Proctor, Ch. 26; Gall., page 157.
4. How to study an occupation. Davis, page 376; Allen, XIII.

VI. Women in Industry.

5. Dressmaker, milliner.
6. Interior decorator.
7. Laundry worker and forelady.

VII. Women in Commercial Fields.

8. Typist, stenographer, bookkeeper, private secretary.
9. Saleswoman, professional shopper, buyer.
10. Telephone operator, supervisor.

VIII. Women in Commercial Fields—Continued.

11. Insurance and real estate agencies.
12. Hotel, restaurants, tea room, hostess and manager.
13. Dry goods and florists' shops.

IX. Shall I Finish High School?

14. Advantages of high school for even industry and commerce.

JUNIOR YEAR

FIRST SEMESTER

I. Preparation for Life.

1. What a true vocation means.
2. What a Catholic girl should be.
3. What is expected of a Catholic woman.
4. My high school life, its course, and my vocation.

II. Self-Guidance.

5. Studying myself.
6. My home, my background, my mental and physical abilities.
7. Should I decide now or later?
8. The general fields of vocations.

III. Women and Work.

1. May a woman work, should she and when?
2. Classes of vocations for women alone.
3. Requirements for each class.

IV. Women in Industry.

1. What Pittsburgh offers in industrial lines.
2. What Pittsburgh offers in commercial fields.
3. Same—continued.

JUNIOR YEAR

SECOND SEMESTER

I. Checking the High School Course.

1. What my report cards tell me.
2. My choice of college.
3. Requirements for college entrance.

II. Women in the Professions.

1. The nurse.
2. The woman doctor.
3. The woman and pharmacy and dentistry.
4. The woman and public health.

III. Women and the Arts.

1. Women authors.

- 2. Woman and music.
- 3. Woman and the theater.
- 4. Woman artists.
- IV. Women and Religion.
 - 1. Nature of religious vocation.
 - 2. Women and the religious school.
 - 3. Talk by a Sister to the girls.

SENIOR YEAR

FIRST SEMESTER

- I. Correcting Mistakes.
 - 1. Have I a plan in life?
 - 2. Is it too late to change?
 - 3. Solving individual problems.
- II. After I Graduate.
 - 1. Some educational statistics about girls.
 - 2. Should I go to college?
 - 3. How should I choose my college?
 - 4. Various courses in colleges for women.
- III. The Meaning of Vocation.
 - 1. The Catholic girl.
 - 2. The Catholic woman.
 - 3. The Catholic mother.
 - 4. The Catholic woman and the Catholic home.
- IV. Women in Religion.
 - 1. Meaning of religious vocation.
 - 2. Kinds of religious orders for women.
 - 3. Two talks by Sisters.

SENIOR YEAR

SECOND SEMESTER

- I. Women and Education.
 - 1. Who can teach.
 - 2. Teaching one of the most difficult vocations.
 - 3. Teaching in secular and religious schools.
 - 4. Normal schools and their requirements.
- II. Women and Scientific Work.
 - 1. Women and biological sciences.
 - 2. Women and psychology.
 - 3. Women and research in science.
- III. Women and Special Fields.
 - 1. Women and home economics.
 - 2. Women and library work.
 - 3. The Social Service worker.
- IV. Individual Cases.

The remaining classes should be devoted to solving individual problems of the girls, helping them with any difficulties about college entrance, choice of school, choosing positions, etc. The main objective should be to prevent the girl from losing time after graduating so that she does not become discouraged or lose ambition.

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THE AMOUNT OF SPELLING INSTRUCTION¹

The first article of this series dealt with the identity of the words to be taught in spelling. From the words occurring most frequently in the sources that are employed, it is necessary to select those that are to be included in courses of study or in spelling texts. Most of the vocabulary investigations have listed a much larger number of words than need to be taught or that could be taught in the elementary grades. It is therefore of considerable importance to ascertain the number of words to be taught, the amount of time to be devoted to this subject, and the most economical use that may be made of the time. All of these matters are highly controversial, and it is easier to describe present practices than it is to formulate the best plan in each regard. The merits of various general procedures may be evaluated as far as this is possible.

Although spelling vocabularies contain as many as ten thousand words, no one would for a moment consider imposing such a burden on the elementary grades. How many of these words should be taught? Since frequency and importance gradually decrease, it is impossible to divide words into two groups without some arbitrary limit. In the solution of this problem a great deal depends on the meaning that is attached to the word as the unit of count. If derivatives are counted separately, the total will be much larger than if they are grouped with their root forms. Since derivatives bear all degrees of resemblance to their base forms, there is an indefinite number of classifications and of word counts and the numerical total may not accurately represent the number of different words included. Differences in methods of counting derivatives virtually preclude any comparison of vocabularies and spellers.

It is necessary to teach derived forms of words as well as the corresponding root forms, but the teaching emphasis must be distributed according to the peculiarity of the derived form. While plurals formed by adding *s* are counted as derived forms, the emphasis they require is obviously less than that needed in teaching such a word as *judgment*. The concern of the present

¹ This is the third of a series of articles on the teaching of spelling. The fourth will appear in the March issue of the CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

study is with the number of words to be included in the spelling course rather than with the ways these words should be taught. One of the most formidable obstacles to agreement on the number of words arises from the presence of large numbers of derivatives and the differences in methods of handling these words. While it is necessary to teach them, it may not be necessary to include them in the spelling textbook as separate words. Their inclusion in the text is a matter of the difference between them and their root forms. Horn's list of the ten thousand most commonly used words in writing includes derived forms as they appeared in the sources from which the vocabulary was constructed. Thus the words *ask*, *asked*, *asking*, and *asks* are counted as separate words, whereas only the root form, *ask*, is found in Thorndike's list. The bearing of these divergent practices on the content of the course of study in spelling is perfectly clear.

Ballou's study was one of the first to attract attention to the teaching of derived forms (1,20).² Other studies of the problem by Horn and Ashbaugh (1, 112) confirmed Ballou's contention but the fact that it is necessary to teach such words does not necessarily indicate how they are to be taught nor the necessity of including them in textbooks. One recent textbook in spelling includes derived forms on the same basis as primitive forms. Several arguments are advanced in favor of this method. It is maintained that the words must be taught. With this there is no disagreement. It is urged that, when such words are omitted, supplemental methods must be resorted to, and since rules are not as effective as direct teaching, the teaching of these words is likely to be sporadic and inefficient. This involves the problem of rules and methods of teaching them. While a detailed discussion of the function of rules is contained in a later article of this series, it is pertinent to remark in this connection that substantial evidence is available that rules are of value when they are properly taught and not imposed on the learners. The notion that all derivatives must be included is an extravagant extension

² As in the other articles of this series, the references are given to "An Annotated Bibliography of Studies Relating to Spelling," by Sister M. Irmina, Sister M. Visitation, and Sister M. Gabriel, and to Supplement No. 1 of that Bibliography by T. G. Foran and Robt. T. Rock, Jr., *Educational Research Bulletins*, 3, No. 1, 1928, and 5, No. 1, 1930. A supplement for 1930 will appear in the near future.

of the idea that all learning is as specific as the item learned. Rules are not educational magic and their limitations are far more obvious than their value. If derivatives are included on the same basis as root forms, the number of different words must necessarily be greatly reduced. It is contended, however, that a vocabulary of about thirty-five hundred words that includes derivatives will include between 98 and 99 per cent of the words needed in everyday writing. Surely this is limiting the aims of teaching to immediate needs only and takes no account whatever of the desirability of extending the writing vocabularies beyond the range that prevails at the present time. An equally recent speller approaches the question in an entirely different way and, although the two texts seem to contain about the same number of words, the second really contains many more, since the derivatives are limited to those that cannot be easily deduced from the root forms.

It must be quite evident that the content of spelling is determined in large part by the inclusion or exclusion of derivatives. Since spellers differ so radically on this point, comparisons cannot be precise unless the number of words means the number of different words. Current practice differs as much as would be expected in the number of words to be learned. Estimates of the number of words to be taught vary from two thousand to five thousand. The minimum estimate is bolstered by the claim that this number includes all the words whose frequency of use merits a place for them in the course of study. The opposite extreme seems to reflect a perseveration of the antiquated objective of teaching all words. Breed states that it would be impossible to teach all the words that a child would need without teaching over ten thousand words but with decreasing frequencies, approximately four thousand words will constitute between 98 and 99 per cent of the words that he will need (2, 12). The present situation is well illustrated by the number of words in spellers in common usage. Thirteen spellers contain the following numbers of words:

A = 4,845	E = 4,016	J = 3,468
B = 4,833	F = 3,819	K = 3,158
C = 4,206	G = 3,698	L = 2,708
D = 4,135	H = 3,614	M = 2,500
	I = 3,572	

Spellers A and B contain over 4,800 words while Speller M includes only 2,500, but direct comparisons are invalidated by the variations in the methods of handling derivatives. Speller M terminates in the sixth grade and advocates the teaching of words in the seventh and eighth grades that pupils encounter in their other studies in those grades. This procedure is, of course, indefensible, since it leaves the content of what is taught in these grades to arbitrary selections by teachers when pupils should be receiving instruction in the words which they will need when they leave school. The median number of words in the foregoing table is 3,819, and it happens that this speller is one of the most recent and best. From this it may be argued that 3,800 or between 3,500 and 4,000 words constitute the spelling vocabulary that is to be taught in the elementary grades. It is recognized that these figures represent only the consensus of opinion. They agree, however, with several recommendations that have been made and which may be regarded as the expression of expert opinion. Such a norm is the only one available at the present time. The Committee on Spelling of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association sponsored the suggestion that not less than three thousand words be included in the spelling course (1, 148, p. 170). Horn's Commonwealth List contained 3,009 words and this list was termed the minimum basis. After reviewing several vocabulary studies, Tidyman stated, "Thus it appears that a writing vocabulary of 4,000 or 5,000 words is adequate for the most exacting and varied demands that are likely to be made upon the average child, and that the thorough teaching of 3,000 to 3,500 carefully selected words is about all that should be expected of the elementary school; provided, that in addition the child is taught how and when to use the dictionary (1, 247, p. 9). Two of the most recently constructed spellers contain almost exactly the same number of words, approximately 3,800. From these several indications it seems that competent authority defines the amount of spelling instruction in terms of number of words at approximately 3,800, but this number is usually supplemented by lists of words that possess local importance but which are not included in texts. All writers agree on the necessity of teaching children the use of the dictionary.

The problem of the amount of time to be devoted to spelling

hinges on many considerations, such as the number of words to be taught, the methods of teaching, the length of the school term, the grades in which spelling is taught, and the necessity of reviews. Indications of prevailing practices are ambiguous. A recent syllabus initiates formal teaching of spelling in the third grade, but a number of words are presumed to have been learned in the first and second grades. It is quite difficult to determine present practices, since it is very doubtful if all agree as to what is meant by "teaching" spelling. It may be that those who state that spelling is taught only in grades three to eight mean only formal spelling while others who state that spelling is taught in all grades mean any kind of spelling whether it is formal or a part of the reading in the first two grades. Formal spelling is sometimes begun in the third, sometimes in the second, and sometimes in the first grade, and the Table 1 shows even more radical variations.

TABLE 1.—*Grades in Which Spelling Is Taught*

(McGaughy, *Second Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence of the N.E.A., 1924, p. 148.*)

Grades	Population of cities			Grand total	Geographical groups				
	8,000-30,000	30,000-100,000	100,000 and over		Eastern	Southern	Great Lakes	Great Plains	Western
1B-8A.....	89	31	13	133	48	14	38	14	19
1B-8B.....	3			3	1		1	1	
1B-7A.....	4	2	2	8		7		1	
1B-7B.....		1	1	2	1	1			
1B-6A.....	18	9		27	9	2	8	6	2
1A-8A.....	28	9	3	40	19		11	8	2
1A-8B.....	2			2	2				
1A-7A.....	1	1	2	4		3	1		
1A-6A.....	7	2	1	10	3	1	3	3	
1A-5A.....		1		1	1				
2B-8A.....	38	8	8	54	19	9	15	8	3
2B-8B.....	1			1				1	
2B-7A.....	5	5	1	11		1	5	3	2
2B-6A.....	9	2	2	13	3	4	1	3	2
2B-5A.....			1	1				1	
2A-8A.....		1	2	3	2		1		
2A-7A.....		1		1					1
2A-6A.....	2			2			1		1
3B-8A.....	1	1	3	5	2	2		1	
3B-7A.....	1	1		2		1			1
6A-8A.....	1			1					1
Totals.....	210	75	39	324	110	45	85	50	34

Table 1 contains no less than twenty-one combinations. Of these some are found only in an insignificant number of systems. A few of the variations are especially noteworthy such as that of teaching spelling in grades 6A to 8A. As pointed out, these

variations may be less than they seem, depending on what is meant by "teaching" spelling, especially in the first grade or the first two grades. Of the 324 school systems, 230 begin spelling in the first grade, 86 in the second and eight in some grade above the second.

The time devoted to spelling varies as much as the grades in which the subject is taught. Data are not available that will indicate the relation between the time devoted to this subject and the grade in which it is begun. Several studies have been made of the time spent in the elementary school subjects. Woody has furnished a comparison of the time for each subject for several periods (1, 280). According to Ayer's investigation of 1924, spelling ranked ninth whereas it was fifth in 1914, according to Holmes, and eighth in 1904. The meaning of this shift is not discernible.

TABLE 2.—*Relative Amounts of Time Devoted to the Teaching of Spelling and Other Subjects in the Rural and City Schools for 1925 Compared with Data from Other Investigations.*

(Woody, 1, 280, p. 143)

Subjects	1925 (Woody)				1924 (Ayer)		1914 (Holmes)		1904 (Payne)	
	Rural		City		Minutes	Rank	Minutes	Rank	Minutes	Rank
	Minutes	Rank	Minutes	Rank						
Reading.....	1,283	1	1,766	1	1,725	1	1,680	1	1,979	1
Arithmetic.....	1,133	2	1,119	2	1,028	2	1,103	2	1,317	2
Language.....	919	3	926	3	995	3	902	3	978	3
Recs.....	805	4	672	4	594	5	582	4	550	5
Geography.....	632	6	665	5	539	7	518	7	554	4
Spelling.....	776	5	642	6	453	9	561	5	420	8
Penmanship.....	452	8	483	7	446	10	470	8	452	7
Physical Training.....	136	11	472	8	640	4	325	10	279	11
Science.....	474	7	415	9	259	13	287	12	301	10
Drawing.....	86	12	382	10	505	8	540	6	508	6
Opening Exercises.....	334	9	368	11	583	6	284	13	249	12
Music.....	50	14	367	12	446	11	419	9	408	9
History.....	293	10	250	13	374	12	290	11	144	15
Industrial Arts.....	59	13	163	14	214	14	233	15	146	14
Unassigned Time.....	48	15	132	15			311	14	220	13

Ayer observed that the total amount of time devoted to spelling in grades one to six averaged 453 minutes a week in forty-nine cities and Lantham's average for sixty cities was 468 minutes.³ With an even distribution of the time in the six grades, the average time devoted to spelling amounts to 78 minutes a

³Lantham, Ray, "Time Allotment in Grades 1-6 in the Elementary Schools of 60 Cities." Dept. of Superintendence of the N.E.A., *Second Yearbook*, 1924, p. 145.

week in the sixty cities and 75 minutes a week in the forty-nine cities. Fifteen minutes a day are allotted to spelling. The amount of time in each grade is as follows:

	<i>Grades</i>							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Minutes	79	87	90	89	85	82	76	73
Number of Cities.....	24	45	46	46	46	46	40	34

These figures indicate that the amount of time averages more than seventy-five minutes but different methods were used in the computation of the averages. Practically all recent writers recommend that not more than fifteen minutes a day be devoted to spelling. It is also agreed that there is no justification for more than one period a day for spelling.

If the spelling vocabulary consists of about four thousand words the average number of new words to be learned each week is less than fourteen. This is far below what is easily possible even when a considerable amount of time is required for reviews, tests, and other activities. The distribution of the words by grades is not even, however. It cannot be when spelling is taught in only some grades. Some indication of the distribution of spelling may be gleaned from the numbers of words allotted to the grades. The following figures are based on two recently published spellers.

PER CENT OF WORDS ALLOTTED TO EACH GRADE BY TWO SPELLING TEXTS

<i>Grade</i>	<i>Text 1</i>	<i>Text 2</i>
2.....	9.5	3.5
3.....	15.2	17.9
4.....	15.2	21.3
5.....	16.6	20.6
6.....	16.3	18.7
7.....	14.6	9.5
8.....	12.6	8.5

Text 1 distributes the work more evenly than does Text 2. In both instances the burden of spelling is first experienced in the third grade. The second text is supposed to be freely supplemented in the seventh and eighth grades from local needs.

Fifteen minutes a day will prove ample to secure spelling proficiency if suitable texts are used with proper methods of teaching. Methods of teaching spelling are tremendously more important than the time devoted to the subject. The relationship between time and efficiency was one of the subjects investigated

by Rice in the first scientific approach to the problems of teaching (1, 204 and 205). Rice's results have been corroborated on several occasions and it is generally held that time as such is an unimportant factor. The remedy for poor spelling is not more time but better methods. It is not contended that time is irrelevant but its influence is submerged by more effective factors. Nifenecker's study (1,184) of the relation between time and efficiency reveals that all degrees of proficiency are observed for all amounts of time. It is worth noting in Table 3 that the most proficient class spent as much time in spelling as the least proficient and between these extremes are classes of all degrees of spelling ability spending from fifty to one hundred and twenty minutes a week on this subject.

Only a portion of the time devoted to spelling is required for the learning of new words. An equally important phase of teaching is refreshing pupils' ability to spell words that have already been taught. The arrangement of reviews is therefore one of the most important aspects of teaching spelling. One of the most serious criticisms of existing texts is the haphazard arrangement of the reviews. There is, however, little scientific evidence on the problem and even principles that are generally accepted are not practiced. The problems of the review are mainly two. One concerns the words and the other the time. The meager evidence on reviews may be examined briefly.

TABLE 3.—*Mean Spelling Scores of 28 Fifth Grade Classes and Amount of Time Spent in Spelling.* (Nifenecker, 1, 184)

Score	Minutes per Week	Score	Minutes per Week
87.6	70	57.7	100
74.3	100	56.9	100
73.0	90	56.2	100
66.9	100	51.0	70
65.9	120	50.1	70
65.5	100	48.4	100
65.3	100	48.0	70
61.6	70	45.3	50
61.2	100	44.7	120
60.8	100	43.5	120
59.0	70	39.5	50
58.7	70	35.0	70
58.4	100	31.7	100
58.3	80	21.7	70

The problem of reviewing is an individual problem. Just as some pupils do not have to be taught the spelling of a word, some do not need to review it for they have retained it. Reviews have two major purposes. The first is to restore what has been lost. The second is to prevent loss. The second purpose is more important than the first for the difficulties that culminate in forgetting can be avoided through timely reviews. Neither is there any great difficulty in the first problem for if pupils forget the spelling of a word, it has to be taught again but to forestall forgetting requires knowledge of the proper timing of reviews and their distribution according to the difficulties that will eventually produce forgetting if they are not checked. Effective teaching will anticipate the gradual forgetting and thereby be relieved of the burden of reteaching what was once known but which has been forgotten. Despite the best of intentions and efforts, however, some words will be forgotten and must be relearned, not merely reviewed. But the words that are forgotten or are in danger of being forgotten by some children may present no such problems to other children. Reviewing and relearning are individual problems which each child must perform according to his own peculiar needs. Each pupil should keep a notebook in which he writes the words that he missed, and these lists constitute his own responsibilities in the matter. It is, of course, idle to have children review words because other children do not know them. The notebook takes care of the most important aspect of the problem, but it is necessary to have some means available whereby children will identify the words which are difficult for them and which they are to insert in their books. Tests for this purpose are composed of the words which have been studied and the proper distribution of these tests so that incipient tendencies to forgetting may be counteracted are an integral part of the teaching of spelling. It is generally assumed in educational psychology that forgetting begins as soon as practice ceases. Applied to spelling, this means that children begin to forget a word as soon as the instruction in it has ceased. But the principle that forgetting begins immediately is of questionable validity and inferences regarding the forgetting of spelling deduced from experiments in the forgetting of nonsense syllables are likely to be misleading.

Evidence on the proper distribution of reviews should be obtain-

able from studies of retention of spelling. Unfortunately there are very few such investigations and only one that deals with the retention of spelling during the school year. This single extensive study was conducted by Woody in a number of schools of Michigan and one or two outside that State (1,278). Pupils were taught four lists of words. The first list contained words of about the degree of difficulty which is suited to the grade in which the tests were given. The second, third, and fourth lists contained words of increasing degrees of difficulty but the words in each list were of approximately the same difficulty. In each class the teacher determined the capacity of the pupils to spell the words in each list by means of a preliminary test. A second test was given after the words had been mastered and the teachers were instructed to drill upon the words until they were thoroughly learned. The third test was given exactly one month after the second test while the fourth test was confined to some schools only and was given after the pupils had returned to school following the summer vacation. Except for the period of instruction, there was no other teaching of the words of the tests. The scores on the third and fourth tests therefore disclose the amount of

TABLE 4.—*Retention of Ability in Spelling.*
(Woody, 1, 278, p. 13)

	Number of classes	Number of pupils	List I			List II		
			Test I	Test II	Test III	Test I	Test II	Test III
Grade IV.....	51	1,037	70	95	91	58	91	89
Grade V.....	48	994	61	95	91	55	92	87
Grade VI.....	40	759	68	95	92	59	94	90

	Number of classes	Number of pupils	List III			List IV		
			Test I	Test II	Test III	Test I	Test II	Test III
Grade IV.....	51	1,037	42	85	82	28	82	74
Grade V.....	48	994	47	91	83	39	90	79
Grade VI.....	40	759	49	90	86	37	89	82

forgetting in words of various degrees of difficulty. It is frequently contended that pupils forget rapidly the words that they have no immediate use for. Woody has reported the results of the various tests by grades and by cities but the summary groups all classes of the same grades together. The median scores on the first three tests are given in Table 4, the results of the fourth test being omitted on account of the fact that it was not possible to give this test in all schools.

The results of the second test indicate that in all grades great improvement was effected, particularly in the spelling of the more difficult words. The degree of retention as measured by the third test is quite remarkable even for the words that were the most difficult and spelled correctly most infrequently. It is only in the fourth list that there is any large loss. For the words that belong in the grade where they were taught, the loss is almost insignificant. The median percentage of correct spellings in all grades on List 1 was 95 and the forgetting did not lower this below 91 in any case. Of course, these averages do not reveal the differences that prevailed in the many schools that participated in the experiment. It must be remembered in interpreting these figures that there were no formal reviews of the words between the second and third tests. Undoubtedly some of the children used several of the words in their work during that interval. A consideration of more importance is that many of the words were spelled correctly before the instruction was begun. But, in the second and third lists, the percentages of correct spellings on the initial test were no higher than prevail in the usual classroom. These data suggest that there is much greater retention of words whose spelling has been well taught than is ordinarily supposed. This means that the reviews may entail a great waste of time if they are not properly arranged. The major emphasis should be placed on adequate teaching of spelling rather than in elaborate methods of reviewing to compensate for inferior instruction. Weekly tests on the words taught during the week should reduce even the small percentage of forgetting that appears in Woody's results. Pupils would write in their notebooks the words that they missed on such a test and these words would be the ones to be reviewed by each pupil according to his needs. It may be criticized that this method does nothing to prevent loss. It is true that the method itself is only a partial means of over-

coming mistakes, but, since it follows soon after the learning of the words, it attacks forgetting at its inception. It is to be presumed that the pupils will use the words they have learned in spelling in their other work and they will therefore be reviewing such words constantly rather than formally and occasionally. One criticism that may be leveled at the teaching of spelling is that it is not related to the other learning activities in which the pupil engages, and accordingly the entire burden is placed on instruction in spelling itself. It is entirely probable that the teaching of spelling can be improved greatly over what it is at the present time and that not a little improvement will result from a better knowledge of the distribution of reviews. Spelling is generally regarded as an easy subject by pupils, but it is not often liked. The elimination of some of the monotony should do much to improve it. Reviews of words that are already known are surely monotonous and much of the reviewing serves no need. Reviewing should be individualized to a much greater extent than it is at present, and the teaching of spelling should be much more closely articulated with the teaching of other subjects.

Very few spellers contain reviews that are graded according to the difficulty of the words or the time that has elapsed since they were taught. The obstacle is in the individual nature of the difficulty in these words for some that will be hard for a few pupils will present no difficulty to others. However, it is just as true that the haphazard arrangement of the reviews springs from ignorance concerning the best organization of them and of the difficulty of the words. Breed has distributed the reviews of words according to their difficulty before they were taught. Words of certain degrees of difficulty are reviewed within a week, some again within the month and a few within the semester, one year and two years after they were originally taught. This grading of reviews is the closest approximation that has yet been attempted to the scientific distribution of reviews, and it is not intended to replace the individualization of instruction or of reviews but rather to complement practices that have proved their worth in the teaching of this subject.

T. G. FORAN.

THEN AND NOW

A student once asked St. Thomas the same question which innumerable students still ask their teachers: How can I become proficient in science; how must I study? The answer from the prince of Scholastics, who garnered truth wherever it was to be found, is not without interest and value now after a lapse of seven centuries. This, in brief, is St. Thomas' advice:

Pass from the easy to the difficult; be slow to speak and equally slow to give assent to the speaker; keep your conscience clear; do not neglect prayer; be amiable towards everybody, but keep your own mind; above all things avoid running about from one school to another; let it be your delight to sit at the professor's feet; be more concerned to hoard in memory the good things said than to regard the person speaking; strive to understand what you read, clearing your mind of all doubts as you go along; eagerly seek to place whatever knowledge you can get hold of in the depository of your mind; find out what you can do, study your limitations, and do not aim higher than your capacity permits.¹

There is as much practical suggestion given in these few lines as may be found in many a pretentious volume of the present day; it is doubtful whether we have discovered anything much better during the past seven hundred years. True, we miss the introductory remarks about motivation, setting up an aim for oneself. But then we must remember that in those days school attendance was neither compulsory nor universal and the majority actually did not go. Those who did attend were already motivated; the teacher did not have to rack his brains devising some scheme for making study easy and pleasant.

Again, we miss the detailed analysis of the art of studying. Instead of some fifty or a hundred devices or specific regulations of the present day, we have less than a dozen broad principles; these, however, will not warp the individuality of the student, nor nip his initiative in the applying of principles as is unfortunately the case with many modern pedagogical directions. Analysis is good; but, carried too far, it is likely to have the same effect on students as it had on the centipede:

¹ Azarias, Brother. *Essays Educational*, New York: William H. Young and Co., p. 89-90.

The centipede was happy quite
Until the toad, for fun,
Said, "Pray which leg comes after which?"
Which wrought her soul to such a pitch
She lay distracted in the ditch
Considering how to run.

"Pass from the easy to the difficult." Find out where in your mind there is solid bed-rock, some sure foothold which will not in the end turn out to be quicksand. Make sure that the foundation is secure before you pass on to build the lofty tower or the imposing edifice. Are we sure of our grammar and our syntax before we try our hand at interpretation? Do we have our forms at our finger tips before we try to express our ideas? Have we our mathematical processes well under control before we attempt to solve an intricate problem? If not, we must stop, for we must master the easy before we *can* perform the more difficult.

Or we might say, begin where you are and proceed step by step to your goal, always linking up the new with the old. Assimilate truth as the organism does food. Make it your own by establishing associations between new and old ideas. Seek for points of similarity or contrast. People who never associate their ideas can never profitably pass on to difficult matter. A higher step than assimilation is discrimination. The keen thinker discriminates, and only he who accustoms himself to this process with easy matter will be able to use it with the more difficult. Again, differentiation, integration, and abstraction represent stages in passing from the easy to the more difficult. Just as a child learns to differentiate between the sound of his mother's voice and the voice of another, just as he builds up a concept of his own house from many contacts with varying parts of the building, just as he learns to think of "dog" in general and not of his own particular dog only, so too must the maturer student differentiate one idea from another and integrate several ideas into a more complex idea.

"Be slow to speak and equally slow to give assent to the speaker." Some there are who readily accept whatever they see in print or hear from the lips of a teacher; others too readily differ and voice their opposition without due reflection. *In medio stat virtus*. Shallow minds are often loud voiced, while deep thinkers are oftener silent. To remain openminded until all the

data are weighed and in the meantime avoid rash conclusions is a most difficult lesson to learn. Pythagoras of old would not allow his pupils to ask questions during the lecture period; they had first to study the matter in hand, think it over themselves, discuss it with others, and then only bring the difficulty to the attention of the master.

"Keep your conscience clear; do not neglect prayer." In vain should we look for this bit of advice in our modern books on the art of study. Instead of this moral exhortation we generally find a sanitary advice—good in itself—regarding the keeping of the mind clear by sleeping in an aired room and taking physical exercise. In the Middle Ages, prayer was a generally accepted aid to study. Robert Sorbon mentions it in the rules of study which he bequeathed to his students as one of the best means of learning.

A clear conscience seems almost an essential for a clear mind. A conscience befogged with doubts and uncertainties and swayed by passions, which cloud the intellect and misdirect the will, is most apt to lead an otherwise capable mind into false conclusions. Then, too, indulged passions which cloud the conscience, very readily prevail on the mind to see only those things which they wish to be seen. Thus, while sin does not necessarily warp the intellect in its natural powers, it does often darken the mind and deprive it of that clear insight and of that keenness of apprehension which generally accompanies faith and an upright life.

"Be amiable towards everybody but keep your own mind." Broadmindedness can see that there are at least two sides to a question. The views of others are often more correct than ours, and it behooves the student to learn early to distinguish between persons and the opinions they hold. The real student is a searcher for truth and while on the one hand he does not despise the views of those with whom he lives, on the other hand he does not allow his good nature to influence him to accept what some one else holds merely out of fear of giving offense, or from a desire to please. *Omnibus te amabilem exhibe, nihil quaere penitus de factis aliorum, nemini familiarem ostendas, quia nimia familiaritas parit contemptum, et subtractionis a studio materiam subministrat.*²

"Above all things avoid running about from one school to

²St. Thomas, Opera Omnia, Parmae Edition, Vol. XVI, p. 338.

another." The modern pupil needs to be exhorted not only not to change schools unnecessarily, but also not to change courses unadvisedly and when studying to adhere to a study horarium as well as to a class horarium. The time wasted in deciding what to study first and what last, the enervating effect of beginning one subject and leaving off only to begin another and leave it in its turn, the dissatisfying results from fretting over all that must be done instead of doing it, are a few of the things to be avoided by most pupils. Running from one social activity to another is equally detrimental to learning. Most pernicious of all, perhaps, to the making of a proficient scholar, is the tendency to look for credits rather than for knowledge or truth. Credits must be tabulated black on white, and whether these credits mean anything or nothing is far too often immaterial to some students. A soft course, an entertaining professor, but above all an easy marker, often determine the enrollment in a course. Under such conditions, pupils do not seek truth or learning in the quiet of their study but rather social diversion. *Cellam frequenter diligas, si vis in cellam vinariam introduci*,³ is St. Thomas' apt way of stating it.

"Let it be your delight to sit at the professor's feet; be more concerned to hoard in memory the good things said than to regard the person speaking." If the teacher has a soul able to put wisdom, character, and strength into the heart of his pupils, through biography, or poetry, or science, it may be that his pupils will say of him as Alcibiades, the spoiled pet of Athens, is said to have exclaimed of Socrates: "While I listen to him I determine to be a better man," without having to add, as Alcibiades, "but when I leave him the life of pleasure gets the better of me and I do foolish things again but if I stayed there I should grow old sitting at his feet." St. Thomas seems to tell his young disciple to take whatever of good he finds in anyone without respect to persons. *Noli jurare per verba magistri*.

"Strive to understand what you read, clearing your mind of all doubts as you go along." A whole treatise of exhortations and lessons might be included under this one general statement. It is here, perhaps, that the modern student needs considerable help. The lack of precision in the use of terms both spoken and written, the dearth of clear definitions so strongly insisted on by

³Ibid., p. 338.

Socrates and Aristotle and again by the great Schoolmen, the hazy conception of logical divisions so stressed then, all tend to make this principle hard to follow. Again, the youthful mind is often impatient of delay, averse to analyzing, weighing, and comparing, over-eager to come to some conclusion. To clear one's mind of all doubts as one goes along requires repression of many tendencies: it requires a disciplined mind. On the other hand, St. Thomas seems to take for granted that doubts will come to the student's mind. The very existence of a doubt in the mind testifies that the mind is active and not merely a passive recipient of whatever ideas are offered.

"Eagerly seek to place in the depository of your mind whatever knowledge you can get hold of." A mind grows by its own activity, not by the activity of the teacher save in so far as the latter stimulates the former. A healthful tone of aggressiveness is evident in this recommendation. After exhorting his disciple to understand what he reads and after clearing his mind of all doubts that arise, St. Thomas adds that he shall place this knowledge cleared of all doubts in the treasuretrove of his mind. In other words, he exhorts him to cultivate his memory. A retentive memory, an accurate memory, is an indispensable requisite to a student. In our eagerness to emphasize reason, judgment, understanding, we are likely to minimize the necessity of a good memory. The student should devise some means of *fixing* in mind those truths which were worth the pains he took to understand.

"Find out what you can do, study your limitations, and do not aim higher than your capacity permits." Some minds are distinctly on the grade school level and cannot rise higher. Others are on the high school level and will not succeed with a college course save in a very diluted form. Others are on the college level but only receptive—productive scholarship is neither congenial nor possible to them. Each must study his own limitations. Forcing all pupils to attend school until they reach one specified chronological age is completely out of harmony with the modern as well as the ancient theory of individual differences.

To these general exhortations given by St. Thomas might be added the more detailed and extrinsic rules of Robert Sorbon:

The scholar who would study with profit should observe the following rules: First, to dedicate a certain hour to a specific

piece of reading. Secondly, to fix attention upon what he is about to read, and not to pass lightly to something else. "There is," says St. Bernard, "the same difference between reading and studying as exists between a host and a friend, between a greeting exchanged on the street and an unalterable affection." Thirdly, to extract each day from our reading some thought, some grain of truth, and to engrave it on the memory with special care. Fourthly, to write out an epitome of what one has read, for the words not confined to writing fly like dust before the wind. Fifthly, to confer with one's companions in the disputations or in familiar conversation. This practice is even of greater service than reading, because it results in clearing up all doubts and the obscurities that may have remained after reading. *Nihil perfecte scitur, nisi dente disputationis finiatur*. Sixthly, to pray. In point of fact, prayer is one of the best means of learning. St. Bernard teaches that reading should excite the affections of the soul, and that it should be a means of elevating the heart to God without interrupting study.⁴

A SISTER OF DIVINE PROVIDENCE.

Melbourne, Kentucky.

⁴Azarias, Brother. *Essays Educational*, p. 117.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES

HOLY NAME COLLEGE DEDICATED

The new theological house of studies of the Holy Name Province of the Order of Friars Minor in Brookland, D. C., was dedicated on December 22, by the Most Rev. Michael J. Curley, D.D., Archbishop of Baltimore.

Among the prelates present were: The Right Rev. Thomas J. Shahan, rector-emeritus of the Catholic University of America; the Right Rev. Msgr. C. F. Thomas, P.A., the Right Rev. Msgr. James H. Ryan, P.A., rector of the Catholic University; the Right Rev. Msgr. Edward A. Pace, P.A., vice-rector of the University, and the Very Rev. Msgr. Harry A. Quinn, rector of the Cathedral. Monsignor Quinn was master-of-ceremonies.

Following the dedication ceremonies Archbishop Curley pontificated at Solemn Benediction of the Blessed Sacrament. The Very Rev. Benevenutus Ryan, O.F.M., Provincial of the Holy Name Province and the Rev. Stanislaus Woywood, O.F.M., superior of Holy Name College, were deacons of honor to His Grace.

Father Francis Jerome Doughaen, O.F.M., and Frater Simon Quigg, O.F.M., were acolytes; Frater Tarcissus Farley, O.F.M., crossbearer; Frater Francis de Sales Nolan, O.F.M., thurifier and Frater Oliver Murray, O.F.M., mitre bearer.

A Solemn High Mass was celebrated on the day of dedication by Father Provincial. The Very Rev. Mathias Faust, O.F.M., was deacon; the Rev. Bernard Vogt, O.F.M., subdeacon, and Father Woywood, master-of-ceremonies.

The new Holy Name College, which was erected at an estimated cost of \$800,000, is a substantial contribution to the architectural beauty of Washington. The architecture is based on the theory "that Romanesque architecture has its roots in Lombardy, and that it was one of these roots that kept on growing through the Romanesque forms and flowered at last in the beauty of Gothic."

The seminary was built to care for Franciscan theological students who attend the Catholic University of America.

NOTED LEADERS ON INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION BODY

A supplementary list of members of the National Council for Intellectual Cooperation, just announced by Secretary of State Stimson, contains the names of the Rev. Dr. George Johnson, Director of the Department of Education, National Catholic Welfare Conference; Miss Mary G. Hawks, President of the National Council of Catholic Women, and William F. Montavon, Director of the Legal Department, National Catholic Welfare Conference.

The original list announced by Secretary Stimson included the names of Prof. Henry Grattan Doyle, Dean of Men at George Washington University here, and John G. Mott, of the Civic Bureau of Music and Art, Los Angeles, both of whom are Catholics. Mr. Mott is chairman of the Board of Catholic Charities in Los Angeles.

The National Council, with similar councils from some twenty Latin-American Republics, constitute the Inter-American Institute of Intellectual Cooperation. This institute was formed with the view to assisting and systematizing the activities that tend to establish intellectual cooperation in the branches of science, arts and letters among the nations of the American Continent.

The functions of the national councils include the formulation of proposals as to problems of intellectual life that need study, or projects that may be taken up cooperatively by the Institute; collection of information relative to the institutions of education, science, arts and letters of their respective countries; dissemination of similar information regarding other countries; promotion in their respective countries of the study of such subjects as shall give an understanding of the development and culture of the other nations of America, and, in general, to act as a liaison between the intellectual elements of their respective countries and those of the other American Republics.

REVISION OF THE CATHOLIC ENCYCLOPEDIA

Announcement has been made of plans for a revision of The Catholic Encyclopedia. This revision will make the Encyclopedia practically a new work. Every article will be recast or rewritten. There will be about 3,000 new articles. The plates of the work will be entirely new, the style of type also, and the

illustrations. The maps will be made over. Including the index, there will be fifteen volumes, handsome in form, binding and presswork, compact, and light, each volume to appear when revised. The original edition was started in 1905 and finished in 1914. It is estimated that the revision can be completed within three years.

This revision is necessary to record the vast change that has come over the world since the completion of the Encyclopedia, the marvelous progress of the Church during that period, and the reflection of all this change and progress in the Literature of our time, as, for instance, in History, Education, Philosophy and the Sciences, Physical and Social.

The editors of the Encyclopedia who will have charge of this revision are: Rt. Rev. Thomas J. Shahan, Rt. Rev. Edward A. Pace, Rev. John J. Wynne and James J. Walsh.

BACKING OF CATHOLICS CITED AS GREAT AID IN GIRL SCOUTS' ADVANCE

The unprecedented growth of the Girl Scouts in the course of 1930 was stimulated appreciably by the support of American Catholics, states a summary of Catholic activity in behalf of the Girl Scouts issued from the headquarters of the organization in New York.

The new year opened with the inauguration of a five-year development plan calling for an increase of 27,000 members in twelve months. That figure was exceeded by over 9,000 in the first eight months, and the total increase for 1930 is now estimated at close to 40,000.

The Girl Scout program in the United States has from the beginning enjoyed high official endorsement and support in the Catholic Church.

The greatest number of Catholic girls identified with scouting is to be found in the Archdiocese of New York, where His Eminence Patrick Cardinal Hayes has, for eleven years, been an active supporter of the movement. Ninety-eight parochial schools and a great many private schools and academies have troops among the students. Every college in the Archdiocese and many outside it, include a leadership training course in the regular curriculum.

In Boston, His Eminence William Cardinal O'Connell issued early last summer an endorsement of the five-year development

plan. Under the leadership of Mrs. Edward B. Donnelly the program is now being brought to an increasingly large number of Catholic girls in that city, and to provide the needed leaders, training courses have been introduced at Emmanuel College.

His appreciation of the value of Girl Scouting, as a healthful and cultural means of employing leisure time has been expressed by His Eminence Dennis Cardinal Dougherty, Archbishop of Philadelphia, while the Rt. Rev. Joseph Schrembs, Bishop of Cleveland, last spring added his approval of the program as a benefit to those dwelling in congested districts and immigrant centers.

"Here," Bishop Schrembs wrote to Mrs. Nicholas F. Brady, "it will be the most effective buffer against the hazard to faith to which so many of our children are exposed in their contact with undesirable neighborhood clubs and associations."

The value of the program in helping to Americanize immigrants in California, has been admitted by the Rt. Rev. John J. Cantwell, Bishop of Los Angeles and San Diego, who is one of the most earnest supporters of the movement on the Pacific Coast. The ease with which girls' interest and enthusiasm are enlisted through the games and other activities, has been found most effective in helping to Americanize the numerous Mexican children in the coastal states.

Porto Rico was a new field added to Girl Scouting in the past year. The active support of Mrs. Theodore Roosevelt, Jr., was enlisted and she was named Honorary Commissioner of a newly formed Insular Council there. In September, an American director, Miss Dorothea Sullivan, formerly of the Carroll Club, went to the island to organize the local activities which have proved to be of great interest not only to the Porto Rican girls but to their parents.

SAFETY MEASURES SAVE LIVES OF MANY CHILDREN

School teachers, policemen assigned to traffic duty near schools, and others who are active in safety work are saving the lives of 6,000 children a year and preventing the injury of many thousands more, according to a statistical study just completed by Albert W. Whitney, associate general manager of the National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters of New York and vice-president in Charge of Education of the National Safety Council.

From 1922 to 1928 the increase in accidental fatalities to adults was 32 per cent; during this same period, which was the exact period during which intensive work in safety education has been carried on in the schools, the deaths of children increased for the first two years and then steadily decreased, the net result being an increase of $1/16$ of 1 per cent. If the deaths of children had increased at the same rate as that of adults, over 6,000 more children would each year be losing their lives than is now the case; in other words, over 6,000 children's lives are being saved each year.

In the case of motor vehicle fatalities for the same period, the increase for adults has been over 100 per cent and for children 23 per cent; the corresponding net saving of life in this field being over 3,000 children's lives each year.

A computation of automobile fatalities among a population of over 38 million for the years 1927 to 1929 made the National Safety Council shows for that period a 24 per cent increase in deaths of adults, a 7 per cent increase for children of preschool age and a 10 per cent decrease for children of school age. The figures for New York City for this period are still more striking, the increase for adults being 35 per cent, for children of preschool age 15 per cent with a decrease of 24 per cent for children of school age.

Figures recently compiled of all accidental fatalities in New York City for the years 1920 to 1929 show for adults a steadily mounting percentage increase—that in 1929 being sixty per cent, with a steadily decreasing figure for children, a 28 per cent decrease, for instance, in 1929.

Figures from all parts of the country indicate the same general facts, that the accidental fatalities to adults are increasing and that the accidental fatalities to children are decreasing. One of the few bright spots in the accident situation is this fact, that children are learning how to accommodate themselves to the dangers of modern life.

"Similar reductions in the fatality rate among adults could undoubtedly be effected," says Mr. Whitney, "if the same means for educating older people were available. Recent experiments by educators have shown that adults have approximately as good learning ability as children. This year the number of fatalities caused by accidents will probably reach 100,000, the greatest single cause of dependency and destitution."

REVIEWS AND NOTICES

Abraham Lincoln, by Albert Shaw. The Review of Reviews Corporation, New York: 1929. Two volumes. Pp. 256, 277. (\$8.00.)

Albert Shaw, editor of the *Review of Reviews*, as a pleasant hobby has collected over a long period a tremendous number of cartoons, prints, and caricatures of Lincoln and of his chief political contemporaries. Some years ago, he published a well received brochure which is extended now to this elaborate work in two finely printed volumes. A keen political sense has apparently driven the author to read deeply the works of Nicolay and Hay, Herndon, Greeley, Tarbell, Rev. William Barton, Sandberg, Beveridge as well as biographies of political leaders, statesmen, and demagogues. Thus he has written an intensely interesting account of Lincoln and American politics from 1828 to 1864 in a style at once novel, simple, and brilliant. It is far more than a Lincoln book. Readers will be challenged by the pen pictures of Jackson, Van Buren, the Mexican War generals, the Southern fire-eaters, abolitionists, expansionists, political preachers like Beecher, editors like Greeley and Bennett, and dark horses like Tyler, Pierce, and Buchanan.

Mr. Shaw is no iconoclast, but again he is not a hero worshipper who perpetuates legends of supermen and beclouds events as they happened. Lincoln himself is quite human as a lad, a pioneer, a "fighter" in the Black Hawk war, a politician, a legislator, a campaigner, a candidate, and a president in the nation's greatest crisis. Above all the contribution of these volumes consists in several hundred contemporary cartoons, American and foreign, and caricatures which illustrate American political history for forty years. These are made available and are preserved. And the cartoons of Thomas Nast, John McLenan, Frank Bellew, John Leech, Louis Maurer, and Dickie Doyle of the *London Punch* deserve to be preserved for the student who would understand the political past as it appeared to contemporaries. That a cartoon is often more telling than a speech, or a shibboleth than an argument, with the man on the street who votes need hardly be demonstrated. Politics turn up strange men, and political accidents create statesmen—as did the late Boston police strike. And strange men appear in these volumes, and pe-

culiar circumstances accounted for the availability and election of the then unknown Lincoln who was destined to become one of our greatest presidents.

RICHARD J. PURCELL, PH.D.

Makers of Our Nation, by Reuben Post Halleck and Juliette Frantz. American Book Company, New York: 1930. Pp. 358.

Mr. Halleck, a professional textbook writer for the grades, and Miss Frantz, a teacher of English in the Louisville high school, have compiled a simply written book for the fifth grade which outlines the careers of our country's heroes and in general the development of the nation. It is good, safe reading for the child. It will help his imagination rather than make him think. It stresses patriotism as the foremost virtue in the creed of nationalism. Indeed on some pages the word patriotism in some form appears three or four times. Heroes are always good models of patriotism and righteousness. The horrors of war are not stressed. Even conscription seems nice. There is a good deal of suppression concerning men and epochs and some half-truths about most worthies. Rebels and reformers of the Revolution are honored, but later radicals are over-looked. In the list of "great men," there are only three American women, Dorothy Dix, Clara Barton and Sacajawea, the "bird-woman" with Lewis and Clark. There is nothing about the struggle for separation of church and state, for religious toleration, for manhood suffrage, for woman suffrage, for the rights of labor, and for democracy. There are no Negroes, Catholics, Irish, Poles, Italians since Columbus, Laborites, or Germans in this land. In fact, there is little about the laboring class or the farmers or the politically discontented or the unemployed. It is a safe book which, fortunately, teaches no hatred and praises the peace movement, but leaves the child believing in the absolute perfection of great men and in America.

RICHARD J. PURCELL, PH. D.

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Carnegie Corporation of New York: *Report of the President*. New York: Carnegie Corporation, 522 Fifth Avenue. 1930.

Carrigan Score Card for Rating Teaching and the Teacher. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: The World Book Company. Price, \$1.00 per package of twenty-five.

Catholic Action Outline Series for Study Groups No. 1: *The Brief Case for the Existence of God*, by Lord, Rev. Daniel A., S.J. St. Louis, Mo.: The Queen's Work Press, 3115 South Grand Boulevard. Price \$.75. Quantity Prices.

Colburn, Evangeline: *A Library for the Intermediate Grades*. Chicago: The University of Chicago. Pp. iv+150. Price, \$1.25.

Gifford, Walter J. and Shorts, Clyde P.: *Problems in Educational Psychology*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company. Pp. xiv+728. Price \$3.00.

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Institute of International Education: *Eleventh Annual Report of the Director*. New York: Institute of International Education, Inc., 2 West 45th Street.

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Logasa, Hannah: *Historical Fiction and Other Reading References for History Classes in Junior and Senior High Schools*. Philadelphia: McKinley Publishing Company. Pp. 131. Price \$1.00.

Morgan, M. Evan, M.A., and Cline, Erwin C., M.A.: *Systematizing the Work of School Principals*. New York: Professional and Technical Press. Pp. xvi+374. Price, \$3.25.

Pierce, David H., Ph.D.: *Analysis and Evaluation of the Learning Situation in a Classroom*. New York: David H. Pierce, New York University, Washington Square East. Paper. Price, Manual with sample score card, \$.35.

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Stutsman, Rachel, Ph.D.: *Mental Measurement of Preschool Children*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: The World Book Company. Pp. xii+368. Price, \$2.20.

Test Method Helps No. 3: *Expressing Educational Measures as Percentile Ranks*, by Francis C. Buros and Oscar K. Buros, Teachers College, Columbia University. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company. Paper. Price, \$.10.

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The Queen's Work Catechetical Series: *Chalk Talks or Teaching Catechism Graphically*, Part III, Section A, by O'Connor, Rev. Jerome F., S.J., and Hayden, William, S.J. St. Louis, Mo.: The Queen's Work Press, 3115 S. Grand Boulevard. Paper. Pp. 53. Price, \$.20.

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